

# Some basic matrix algebra: Vectors

---

- $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_p \end{pmatrix}$ : an array of  $n$  real numbers,  $x_1, \dots, x_p \in \mathbb{R}$
- Geometrically? directed line in  $p$  dimensional space with  $i$ -th entry  $x_i$  along the  $i$ -th axis.
- Vector operations: for  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 
  - addition:  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ ,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$
  - scalar multiplication:  $c\mathbf{x}$ , for  $c \in \mathbb{R}$
  - $\text{span}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k) = \{c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{x}_k, c_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ : linear combination of vectors
  - $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  are linearly dependent if  $\exists a_1, \dots, a_k$ , not all zero, s.t.  $a_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{x}_k = 0$ .
    - \* what this implies: at least one vector in the set can be written as a linear combination of the other vectors
    - \* example
  - If the set of vectors are not linearly dependent, we say they are linearly independent.

# Vectors

---

- length of a vector:  $L(\mathbf{x}) = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_p^2}$
- angle between the vectors:  $\cos(\angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = \frac{x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_py_p}{L(\mathbf{x})L(\mathbf{y})}$
- inner product  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_py_p$ : sum of component products
- relation between angle and inner product:  $\cos(\angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}}{L(\mathbf{x})L(\mathbf{y})}$
- $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are perpendicular when the angle between the two is  $\pi/2$  (or  $3\pi/2$ ) and we write  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$
- $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$ .
- projection of a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  on a vector  $\mathbf{y}$ :  $\frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}}{L(\mathbf{y})^2} \mathbf{y}$

# Vectors

---

- Euclidean distance between the two vectors:

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \cdots + (x_p - y_p)^2} = \sqrt{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})}$$

- In general, any distance measure can be used, but it has to satisfy

- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) > 0$  if  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0$  if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + d(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})$  for any point  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

# Matrix

---

- matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times p}$ : collection of numbers with  $n$  rows and  $p$  columns

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2p} \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

or use  $\mathbf{A} = \{a_{ij}\}$

- column of space of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $C(\mathbf{A}) = \text{span}(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_p) = \{c_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \dots + c_p\mathbf{a}_p \mid c_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , where  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_p$  are the columns of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

$$C(\mathbf{X}^T) = ?$$

- matrix operations

$$- \mathbf{A}^T = \{a_{ji}\}$$

$$- \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \{a_{ij} + b_{ji}\}, \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \{a_{ij} - b_{ji}\}$$

$$- c\mathbf{A} = \{ca_{ij}\}, c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$- \mathbf{A}_{n \times p} \mathbf{B}_{p \times m} = \{\sum_{k=1}^p a_{ik} b_{kj}\}$$

$$- \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{the maximum number of linearly independent rows (columns)}.$$

$$- \text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^p a_{ii}$$

# Square Matrix

---

- Determinant:  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = |\mathbf{A}| = \sum (-1)^{|\pi|} a_{1\pi(1)} \cdots a_{p\pi(p)}$ , the summation is over all permutations  $\pi$  of  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ , and  $|\pi| = 0$  if the permutation can be written as a product of an even number of transposition and  $|\pi| = 1$  otherwise.
- Inverse: if there exists  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BB} = \mathbf{I}$ , then  $\mathbf{B}$  is called the inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  and denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .
  - Inverse exists if the  $k$  columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  are linearly independent.
- Orthogonal Matrices:  $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$ 
  - $\mathbf{q}^T\mathbf{q} = I(i = j)$ : length of the column=1 and  $i$  and  $j$ -th columns are orthogonal.

# Projection Matrix

---

- A square matrix  $\mathbf{P}$  is called a projection matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^p$  if and only if  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}^T = \mathbf{P}^2$  (idempotent).

- For  $\mathbf{X}$   $n \times p$  matrix, consider

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T.$$

Then, the matrix  $\mathbf{P}$  projects any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  onto the column space  $C(\mathbf{X})$  of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

---

- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors: For  $\mathbf{A} : p \times p$ ,  $\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  s.t.  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ , then we say  $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue and  $\mathbf{v}$  is the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$ .
- Spectral Decomposition: Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be a  $p \times p$  square symmetric matrix. Then,  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $p$  pairs of eigenvalues and (normalized) eigenvectors pairs. Specifically,  $\mathbf{A}$  can be written as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T = \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T,$$

where  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p)$  and  $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p]$  is an orthonormal matrix consisting of eigenvectors.

- Let  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$  be eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then,

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \prod_{i=1}^p \lambda_i$$

and

$$\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i.$$

# Quadratic forms

---

- Study of variance and interrelationship is often based on (squared of) distances.
- Squared distances can be expressed in terms of matrix product called quadratic forms.

Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be  $p \times p$  square and symmetric matrix. Consider a quadratic form  $Q$ :

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i,j} x_i a_{ij} x_j$$

- $\mathbf{A}$  is said to be non-negative definite ( $\mathbf{A} \geq 0$ ) if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .
- If  $=$  holds only for  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is said to be positive definite  $\mathbf{A} > 0$ .
- $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite  $\Leftrightarrow \lambda_i > 0, \forall i = 1, \dots, p$

Why?

- For  $\mathbf{A} > 0$ , let  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T$  be the spectral decomposition of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then,  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{V}^T$ .
- For  $\mathbf{A} > 0$ ,  $\mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{1/2} \mathbf{V}^T$  where  $\mathbf{\Lambda}^{1/2} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_i})$  is called the square root of  $\mathbf{A}$  and denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{1/2}$ .